CS 267 Applications of Parallel Computers

Lecture 23:

Solving Linear Systems arising from PDEs - I

James Demmel

http://www.nersc.gov/~dhbailey/cs267/Lectures

Lect_23_2000.ppt

Outline

° **Review Poisson equation**

° **Overview of Methods for Poisson Equation**

° **Jacobi's method**

° **Red-Black SOR method**

° **Conjugate Gradients**

Reduce to sparse-matrix-vector multiply
Need them to understand Multigrid

° **FFT**
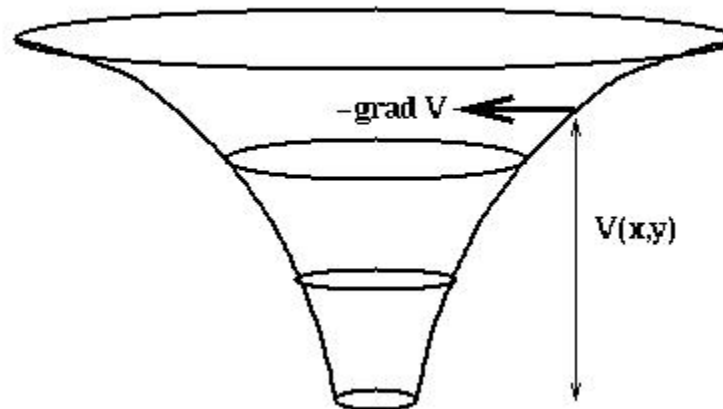
° **Multigrid (next lecture)**

Poisson's equation arises in many models

° **Heat flow:** Temperature(position, time)

° **Diffusion:** Concentration(position, time)

° **Electrostatic or Gravitational Potential:**
   Potential(position)

° **Fluid flow:** Velocity,Pressure,Density(position,time)

° **Quantum mechanics:** Wave-function(position,time)

° **Elasticity:** Stress,Strain(position,time)

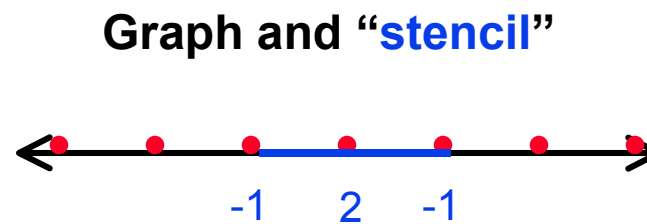# Relation of Poisson's equation to Gravity, Electrostatics

° **Force on particle at (x,y,z) due to particle at 0 is**

   $-(x,y,z)/r^3$, **where** $r = sqrt(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$

° **Force is also gradient of potential V = -1/r**

   $= -(d/dx\ V,\ d/dy\ V,\ d/dz\ V) = -grad\ V$

° **V satisfies Poisson's equation (try it!)**

Relationship of Potential V and Force −grad V in 2D

−grad V

V(x,y)

Poisson's equation in 1D

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & & \\ & -1 & 2 & -1 & \\ & & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ & & & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
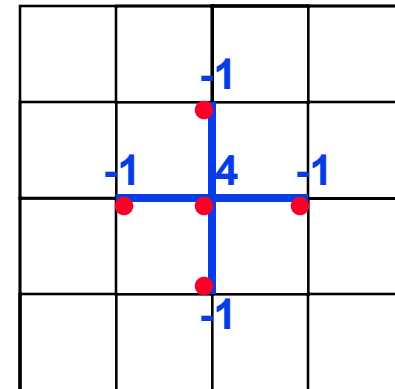
Graph and "**stencil**"

-1   2   -1

2D Poisson's equation

° **Similar to the 1D case, but the matrix T is now**

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 & & -1 & & & & & \\ -1 & 4 & -1 & & -1 & & & & \\ & -1 & 4 & & & -1 & & & \\ -1 & & & 4 & -1 & & -1 & & \\ & -1 & & -1 & 4 & -1 & & -1 & \\ & & -1 & & -1 & 4 & & & -1 \\ & & & -1 & & & 4 & -1 & \\ & & & & -1 & & -1 & 4 & -1 \\ & & & & & -1 & & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Graph and "stencil"

° **3D is analogous**

Algorithms for 2D Poisson Equation with N unknowns

Algorithm	Serial	PRAM	Memory	#Procs
° Dense LU	N^3	N	N^2	N^2
° Band LU	N^2	N	$N^{3/2}$	N
° Jacobi	N^2	N	N	N
° Explicit Inv.	N^2	$\log N$	N^2	N^2
° Conj.Grad.	$N^{3/2}$	$N^{1/2} * \log N$	N	N
° RB SOR	$N^{3/2}$	$N^{1/2}$	N	N
° Sparse LU	$N^{3/2}$	$N^{1/2}$	$N*\log N$	N
° FFT	$N*\log N$	$\log N$	N	N
° Multigrid	N	$\log^2 N$	N	N
° Lower bound	N	$\log N$	N	

PRAM is an idealized parallel model with zero cost communication
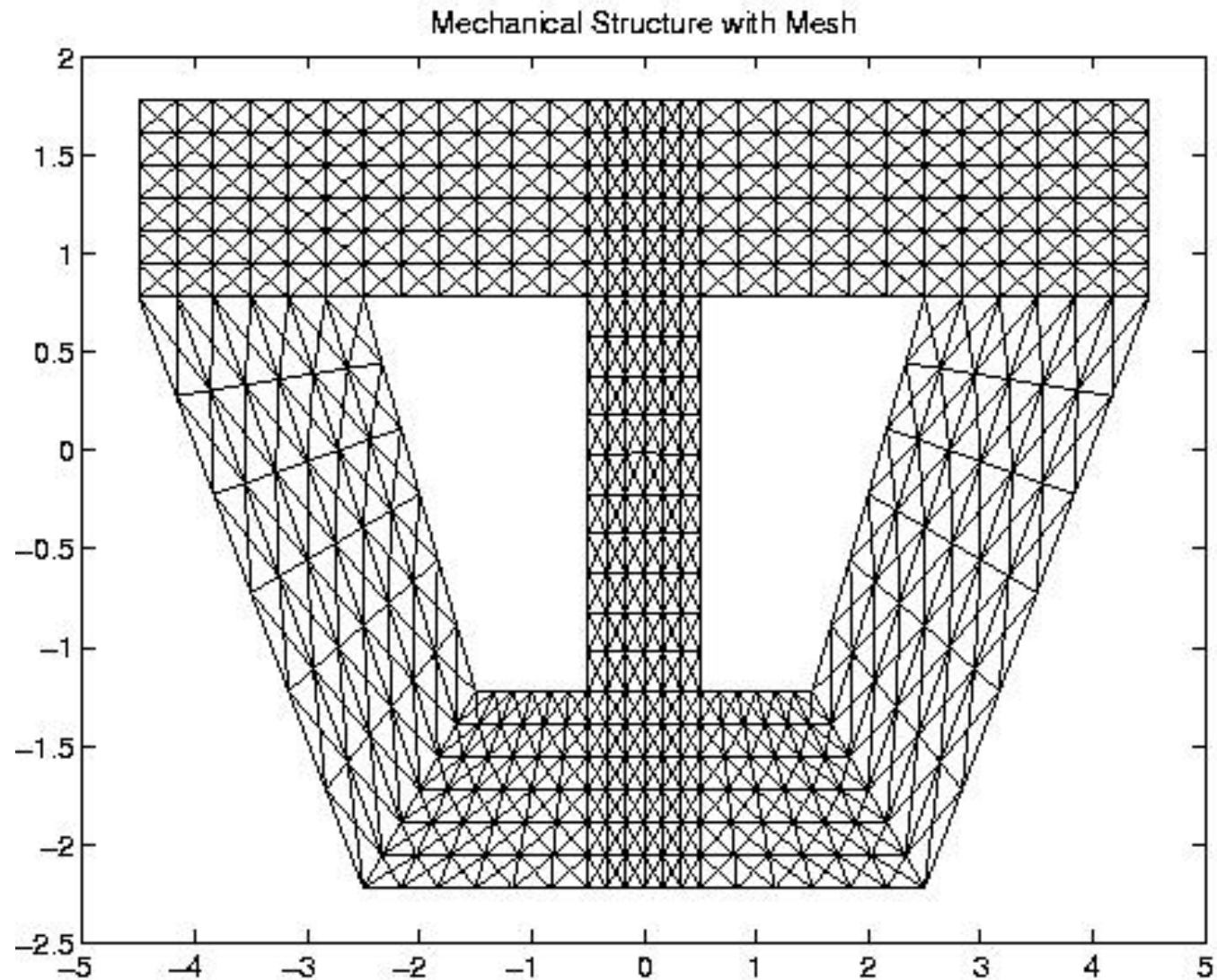
Short explanations of algorithms on previous slide

° **Sorted in two orders (roughly):**
  - from slowest to fastest on sequential machines
  - from most general (works on any matrix) to most specialized (works on matrices "like" Poisson)

° **Dense LU**: Gaussian elimination; works on any N-by-N matrix

° **Band LU**: exploit fact that T is nonzero only on sqrt(N) diagonals nearest main diagonal, so faster

° **Jacobi**: essentially does matrix-vector multiply by T in inner loop of iterative algorithm

° **Explicit Inverse**: assume we want to solve many systems with T, so we can precompute and store inv(T) "for free", and just multiply by it
  - It's still expensive!

° **Conjugate Gradients**: uses matrix-vector multiplication, like Jacobi, but exploits mathematical properies of T that Jacobi does not

° **Red-Black SOR (Successive Overrelaxation):** Variation of Jacobi that exploits yet different mathematical properties of T
  - Used in Multigrid

° **Sparse LU**: Gaussian elimination exploiting particular zero structure of T

° **FFT** (Fast Fourier Transform): works only on matrices *very* like T

° **Multigrid**: also works on matrices like T, that come from elliptic PDEs

° **Lower Bound**: serial (time to print answer); parallel (time to combine N inputs)

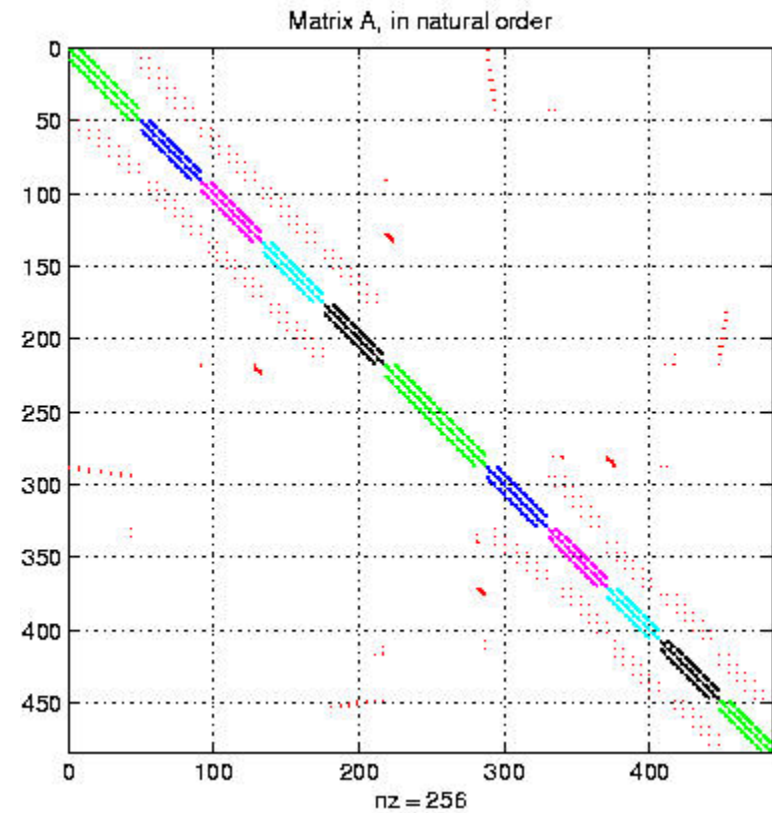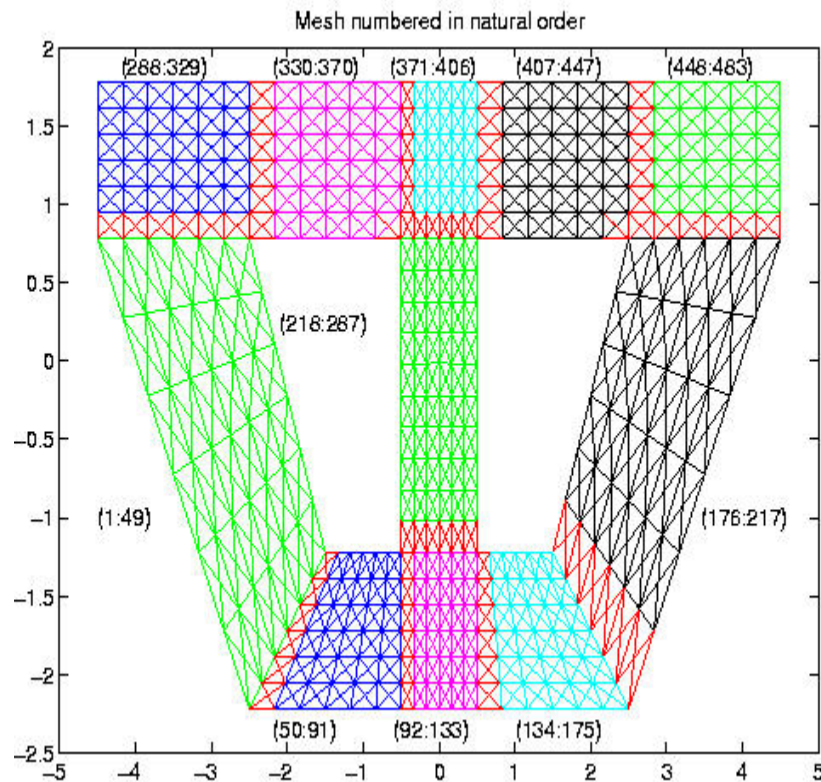° **Details in class notes and www.cs.berkeley.edu/~demmel/ma221**

Comments on practical meshes

° **Regular 1D, 2D, 3D meshes**

- **Important as building blocks for more complicated meshes**
- **We will discuss these first**

° **Practical meshes are often irregular**

- **Composite meshes, consisting of multiple "bent" regular meshes joined at edges**
- **Unstructured meshes, with arbitrary mesh points and connectivities**
- **Adaptive meshes, which change resolution during solution process to put computational effort where needed**

° **In later lectures we will talk about some methods on unstructured meshes; lots of open problems**
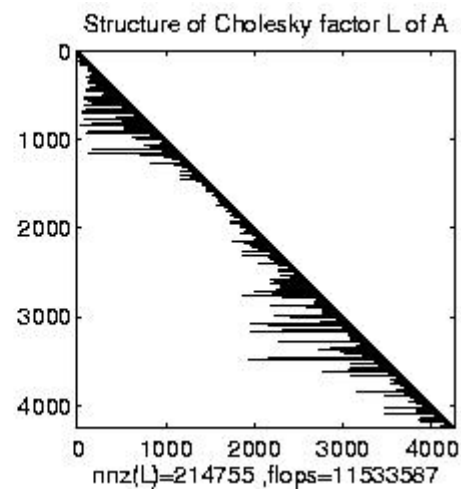
Composite mesh from a mechanical structure

Mechanical Structure with Mesh

Converting the mesh to a matrix

Irregular mesh: NASA Airfoil in 2D (direct solution)

Finite Element Mesh of NASA Airfoil

4253 grid points

Structure of A

nnz(A)=28831

Structure of Cholesky factor L of A

nnz(L)=214755 ,flops=11533587

Irregular mesh: Tapered Tube (multigrid)
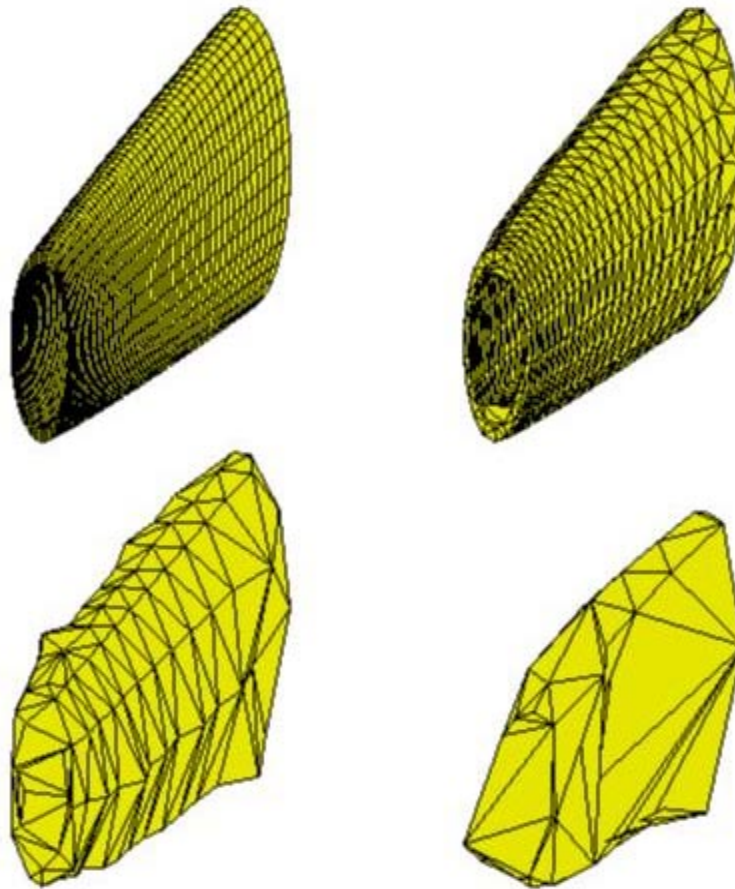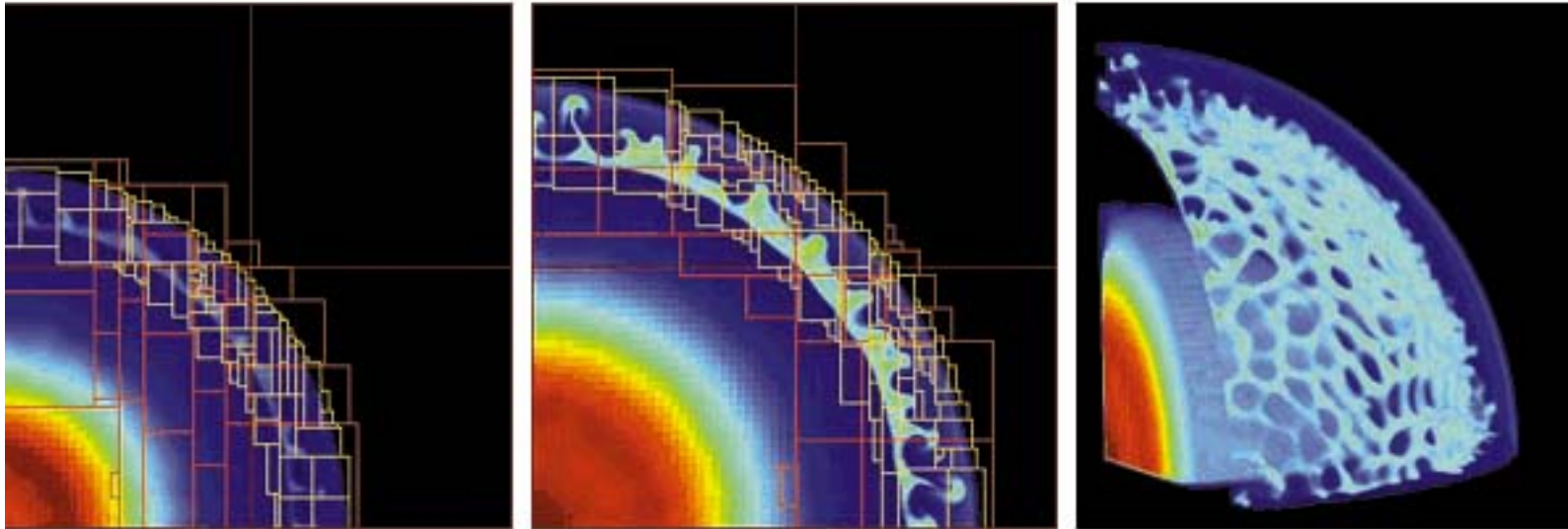
Example of Prometheus meshes

Figure 6: Sample input grid and coarse grids

Adaptive Mesh Refinement (AMR)

° **Adaptive mesh around an explosion**
° **John Bell and Phil Colella at LBL (see class web page for URL)**
° **Goal of Titanium is to make these algorithms easier to implement in parallel**

Jacobi's Method

° **To derive Jacobi's method, write Poisson as:**

$$u(i,j) = (u(i-1,j) + u(i+1,j) + u(i,j-1) + u(i,j+1) + b(i,j))/4$$

° **Let u(i,j,m) be approximation for u(i,j) after m steps**

$$u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,m) + u(i+1,j,m) + u(i,j-1,m) +$$

$$u(i,j+1,m) + b(i,j)) / 4$$

° **I.e., u(i,j,m+1) is a weighted average of neighbors**

° **Motivation: u(i,j,m+1) chosen to exactly satisfy equation at (i,j)**

° **Convergence is proportional to problem size, $N=n^2$**

  • **See http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~demmel/lecture24 for details**

° **Therefore, serial complexity is $O(N^2)$**

Parallelizing Jacobi's Method

° **Reduces to sparse-matrix-vector multiply by (nearly) T**

$$U(m+1) = (T/4 - I) * U(m) + B/4$$

° **Each value of U(m+1) may be updated independently**

   • **keep 2 copies for timesteps m and m+1**

° **Requires that boundary values be communicated**

   • **if each processor owns n^2/p elements to update**

   • **amount of data communicated, n/p per neighbor, is relatively small if n>>p**

Partitioning of the 2D Heat Equation

Successive Overrelaxation (SOR)

° **Similar to Jacobi: u(i,j,m+1) is computed as a linear combination of neighbors**

° **Numeric coefficients and update order are different**

° **Based on 2 improvements over Jacobi**

  - **Use "most recent values" of u that are available, since these are probably more accurate**

  - **Update value of u(m+1) "more aggressively" at each step**

° **First, note that while evaluating *sequentially***

  - **u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,m) + u(i+1,j,m) …**

  some of the values are for m+1 are already available

  - **u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,latest) + u(i+1,j,latest) …**

  where latest is either m or m+1

Gauss-Seidel

° **Updating left-to-right row-wise order, we get the Gauss-Seidel algorithm**

for i = 1 to n

  for j = 1 to n

    u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,m+1) + u(i+1,j,m) + u(i,j-1,m+1) + u(i,j+1,m)

            + b(i,j)) / 4

° **Cannot be parallelized, because of dependencies, so instead we use a "red-black" order**

forall black points u(i,j)

  u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,m) + …

forall red points u(i,j)

  u(i,j,m+1) = (u(i-1,j,m+1) + …

° **For general graph, use graph coloring**

  ° Graph(T) is bipartite => 2 colorable (red and black)

  ° Nodes for each color can be updated simultaneously

  ° Still Sparse-matrix-vector multiply, using submatrices

Successive Overrelaxation (SOR)

° **Red-black Gauss-Seidel converges twice as fast as Jacobi, but there are twice as many parallel steps, so the same in practice**

° **To motivate next improvement, write basic step in algorithm as:**

      u(i,j,m+1) = u(i,j,m) + correction(i,j,m)

° **If "correction" is a good direction to move, then one should move even further in that direction by some factor w>1**

      u(i,j,m+1) = u(i,j,m) + w * correction(i,j,m)

° **Called successive overrelaxation (SOR)**

° **Parallelizes like Jacobi (Still sparse-matrix-vector multiply…)**

° **Can prove w = 2/(1+sin(π/(n+1))) for best convergence**

- **Number of steps to converge = parallel complexity = $O(n)$, instead of $O(n^2)$ for Jacobi**
- **Serial complexity $O(n^3) = O(N^{3/2})$, instead of $O(n^4) = O(N^2)$ for Jacobi**

Conjugate Gradient (CG) for solving A*x = b

° **This method can be used when the matrix A is**

  - **symmetric, i.e., $A = A^T$**

  - **positive definite, defined equivalently as:**

    - **all eigenvalues are positive**

    - **$x^T * A * x > 0$ for all nonzero vectors s**

    - **a Cholesky factorization, $A = L*L^T$ exists**

° **Algorithm maintains 3 vectors**

  - **x = the approximate solution, improved after each iteration**

  - **r = the residual, r = A*x - b**

  - **p = search direction, also called the conjugate gradient**

° **One iteration costs**

  - **Sparse-matrix-vector multiply by A (major cost)**

  - **3 dot products, 3 saxpys (scale*vector + vector)**

° **Converges in $O(n) = O(N^{1/2})$ steps, like SOR**

  - **Serial complexity = $O(N^{3/2})$**

  - **Parallel complexity = $O(N^{1/2} \log N)$,   log N factor from dot-products**

Summary of Jacobi, SOR and CG

° **Jacobi, SOR, and CG all perform sparse-matrix-vector multiply**

° **For Poisson, this means nearest neighbor communication on an n-by-n grid**

° **It takes $n = N^{1/2}$ steps for information to travel across an n-by-n grid**

° **Since solution on one side of grid depends on data on other side of grid faster methods require faster ways to move information**

  - **FFT**

  - **Multigrid**

Solving the Poisson equation with the FFT

° **Motivation: express continuous solution as Fourier series**

- $u(x,y) = \Sigma_i \, \Sigma_k \, u_{ik} \sin(\pi \, ix) \sin(\pi \, ky)$
- u_{ik} **called Fourier coefficient of u(x,y)**

° **Poisson's equation** $\delta^2 u/\delta x^2 + \delta^2 u/\delta y^2 = b$ **becomes**

$\Sigma_i \, \Sigma_k \, (-\pi i^2 - \pi k^2) \, u_{ik} \sin(\pi \, ix) \sin(\pi \, ky)$

$= \Sigma_i \, \Sigma_k \, b_{ik} \sin(\pi \, ix) \sin(\pi \, ky)$

° **where b_{ik} are Fourier coefficients of b(x,y)**

° **By uniqueness of Fourier series,** $u_{ik} = b_{ik} \, / \, (-\pi i^2 - \pi k^2)$

° **Continuous Algorithm (Discrete Algorithm)**

° **Compute Fourier coefficient b_{ik} of right hand side**

° **Apply 2D FFT to values of b(i,k) on grid**

° **Compute Fourier coefficients u_{ik} of solution**

° **Divide each transformed b(i,k) by function(i,k)**

° **Compute solution u(x,y) from Fourier coefficients**

° **Apply 2D inverse FFT to values of b(i,k)**

Serial FFT

° **Let i=sqrt(-1) and index matrices and vectors from 0.**

° **The** **Discrete Fourier Transform** **of an m-element vector v is:**

$$F*v$$

Where F is the m*m matrix defined as:

$$F[j,k] = \varpi^{(j*k)}$$

Where ϖ is:

$$\varpi = e^{(2\pi i/m)} = \cos(2\pi/m) + i*\sin(2\pi/m)$$

° **This is a complex number with whose m^{th} power is 1 and is therefore called the mth root of unity**

° **E.g., for m = 4:**

$$\varpi = 0+1*i, \quad \varpi^2 = -1+0*i, \quad \varpi^3 = 0-1*i, \quad \varpi^4 = 1+0*i,$$

Using the 1D FFT for filtering

° **Signal = sin(7t) + .5 sin(5t) at 128 points**

° **Noise = random number bounded by .75**

° **Filter by zeroing out FFT components < .25**

Using the 2D FFT for image compression
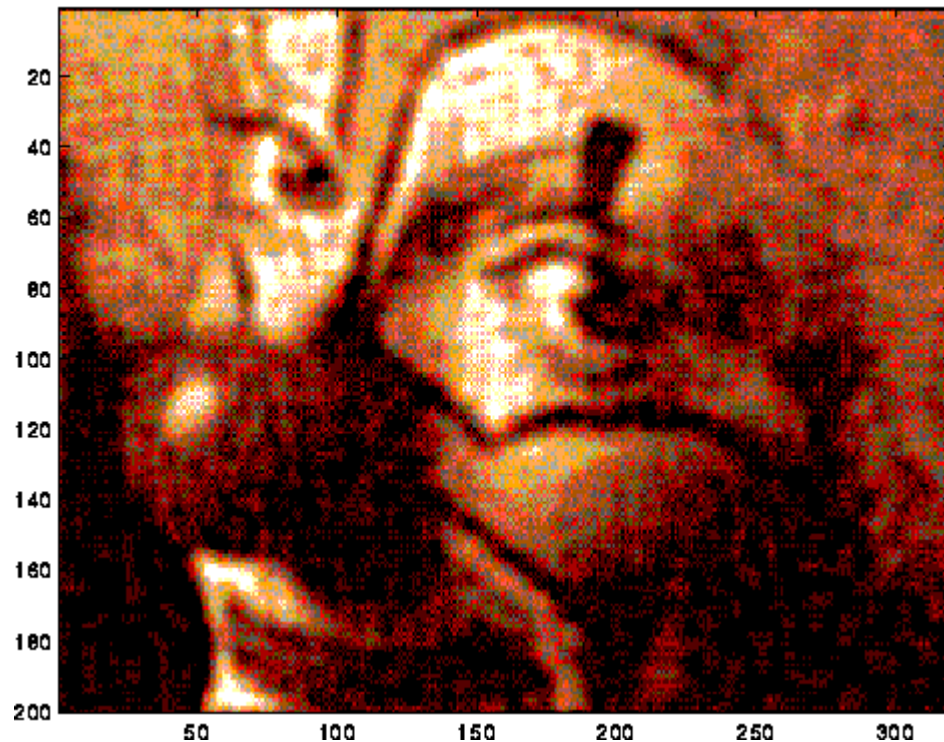
- ° **Image = 200x320 matrix of values**

- ° **Compress by keeping largest 2.5% of FFT components**

Original Image

Keep only largest 2.5% of entries of 2DFFT

Demmel Sp 1999

Related Transforms

° **Most applications require multiplication by both F and inverse(F).**

° **Multiplying by F and inverse(F) are essentially the same. (inverse(F) is the complex conjugate of F divided by n.)**

° **For solving the Poisson equation and various other applications, we use variations on the FFT**

  • **The sin transform -- imaginary part of F**

  • **The cos transform -- real part of F**

° **Algorithms are similar, so we will focus on the forward FFT.**

Serial Algorithm for the FFT

° **Compute the FFT of an m-element vector v, F*v**

$$(F*v)[j] = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} F(j,k)*v(k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \varpi^{(j*k)} * v(k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (\varpi^{j})^{k} * v(k)$$

$$= V(\varpi^{j})$$

° **Where V is defined as the polynomial**

$$V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} x^{k} * v(k)$$

Divide and Conquer FFT

° **V can be evaluated using divide-and-conquer**

$$V(x) = \Sigma_{k=0}^{m-1} \ (x)^k * v(k)$$

$$= v[0] + x^2*v[2] + x^4*v[4] + \ldots$$

$$+ x*(v[1] + x^2*v[3] + x^4*v[5] + \ldots)$$

$$= V_{even}(x^2) + x*V_{odd}(x^2)$$

° **V has degree m, so V_{even} and V_{odd} are polynomials of degree m/2-1**

° **We evaluate these at points $(\varpi^{\ j})^2$ for 0<=j<=m-1**

° **But this is really just m/2 different points, since**

$$(\varpi^{\ (j+m/2)})^2 = (\varpi^{\ j} * \varpi^{\ m/2})^2 = (\varpi^{\ 2j} * \varpi) = (\varpi^{\ j})^2$$

Divide-and-Conquer FFT

FFT(v, v, m)

  if m = 1 return v[0]

  else

    v_{even} = FFT(v[0:2:m-2], ϖ^2, m/2)

    v_{odd} = FFT(v[1:2:m-1], ϖ^2, m/2)　　　　precomputed

    ϖ-vec = [ϖ^0, ϖ^1, … $\varpi^{(m/2-1)}$]

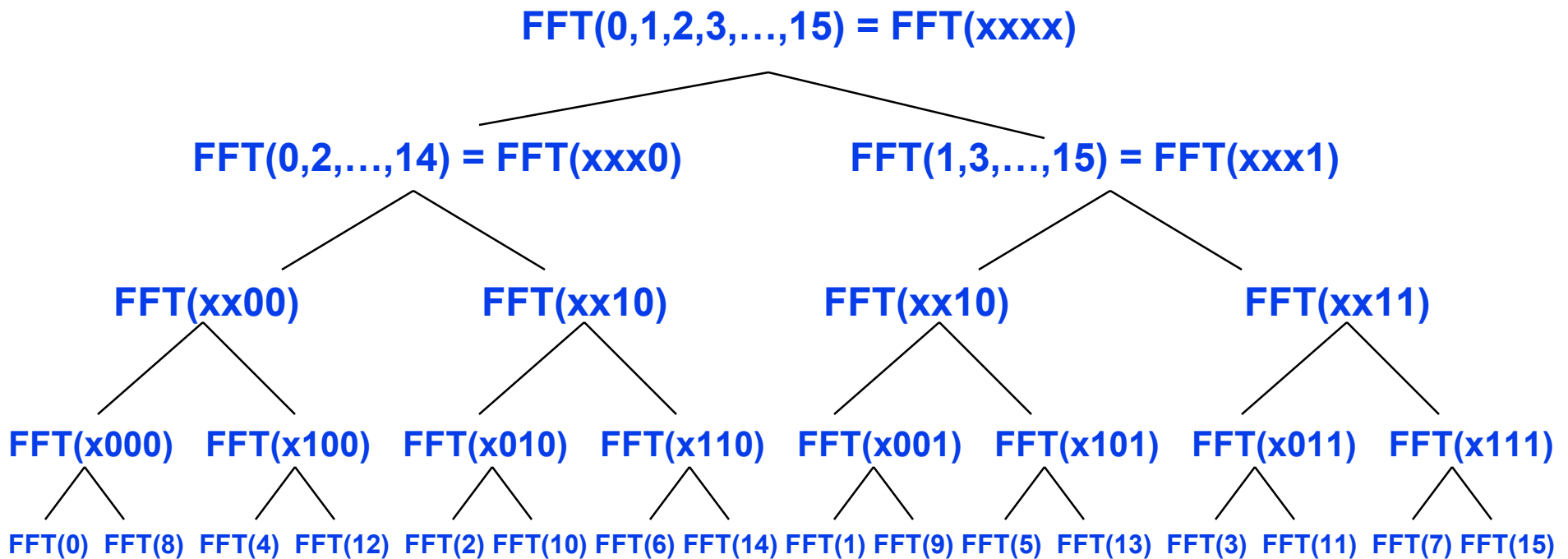   return [v_{even} + (ϖ-vec .* v_{odd}),

            v_{even} - (ϖ-vec .* v_{odd})]

° The .* above is component-wise multiply.

° The […,…] is construction an m-element vector from 2 m/2 element vectors

This results in an O(m log m) algorithm.

An Iterative Algorithm

° **The call tree of the d&c FFT algorithm is a complete binary tree of log m levels**

FFT(0,1,2,3,…,15) = FFT(xxxx)

FFT(0,2,…,14) = FFT(xxx0)   **FFT(1,3,…,15) = FFT(xxx1)**

FFT(xx00)   **FFT(xx10)**   **FFT(xx10)**   **FFT(xx11)**

FFT(x000) FFT(x100) FFT(x010) FFT(x110) FFT(x001) FFT(x101) FFT(x011) FFT(x111)

FFT(0) FFT(8) FFT(4) FFT(12) FFT(2) FFT(10) FFT(6) FFT(14) FFT(1) FFT(9) FFT(5) FFT(13) FFT(3) FFT(11) FFT(7) FFT(15)

° **Practical algorithms are iterative, going across each level in the tree starting at the bottom**

° **Algorithm overwrites v[i] by (F*v)[bitreverse(i)]**

Parallel 1D FFT

° **Data dependencies in 1D FFT**

  • **Butterfly pattern**

° **A PRAM algorithm takes O(log m) time**

  • **each step to right is parallel**

  • **there are log m steps**

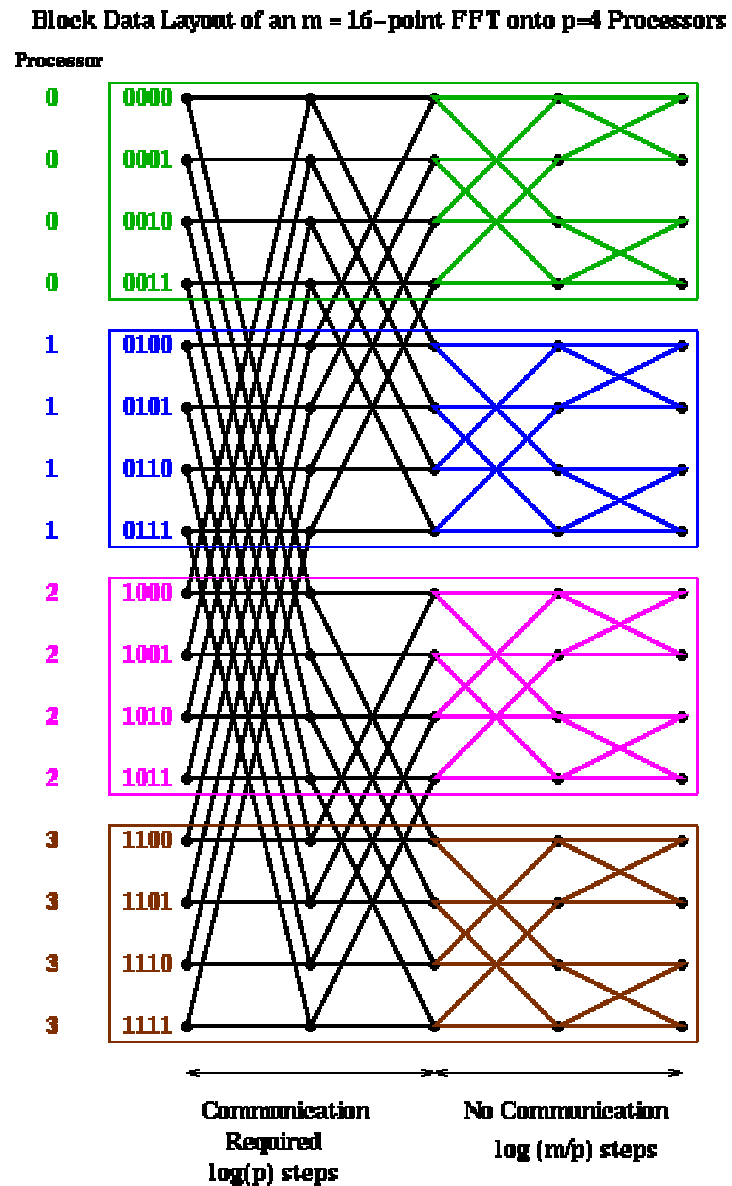° **What about communication cost?**

° **See LogP paper for details**
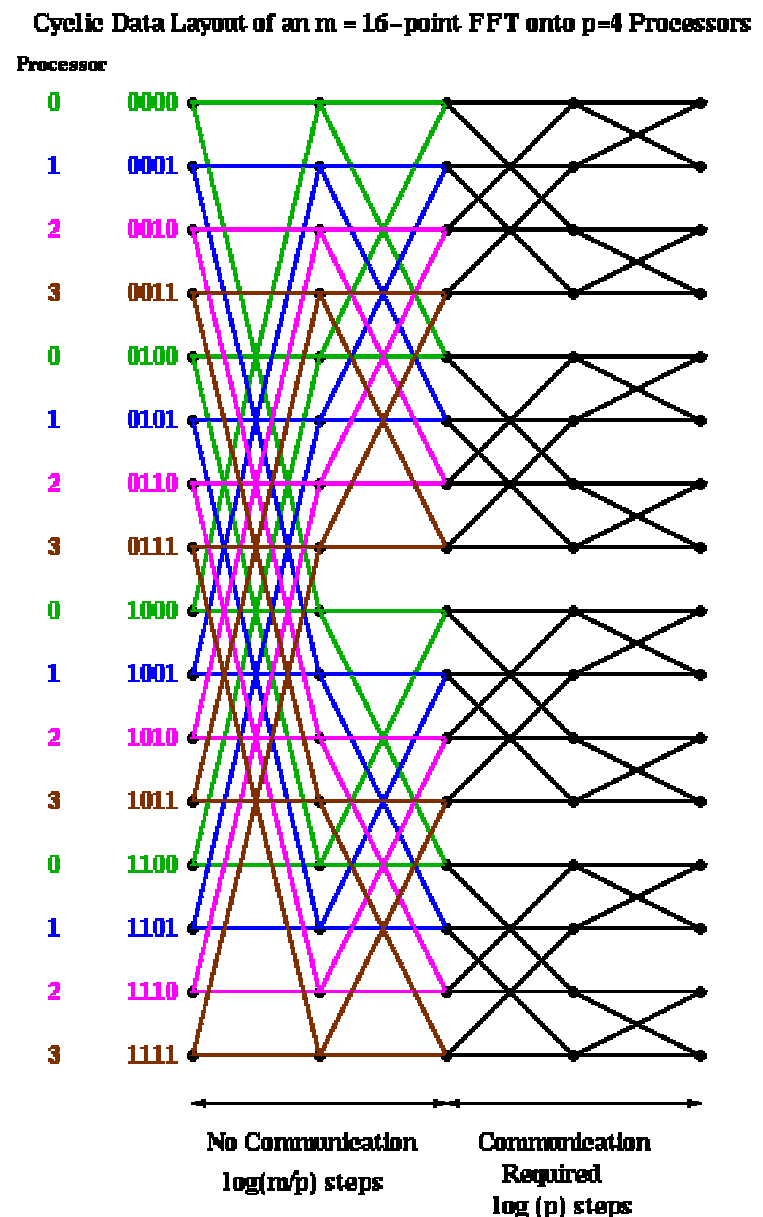

Data Dependencies in a 16-point FFT

Block Layout of 1D FFT

° **Using a block layout (m/p contiguous elts per processor)**

° **No communication in last log m/p steps**

° **Each step requires fine-grained communication in first log p steps**

Block Data Layout of an m = 16-point FFT onto p=4 Processors

Demmel Sp 1999

Cyclic Layout of 1D FFT

° **Cyclic layout (only 1 element per processor, wrapped)**

° **No communication in first log(m/p) steps**

° **Communication in last log(p) steps**

Cyclic Data Layout of an m = 16-point FFT onto p=4 Processors

Processor

0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
0	0100
1	0101
2	0110
3	0111
0	1000
1	1001
2	1010
3	1011
0	1100
1	1101
2	1110
3	1111

No Communication
log(m/p) steps

Communication
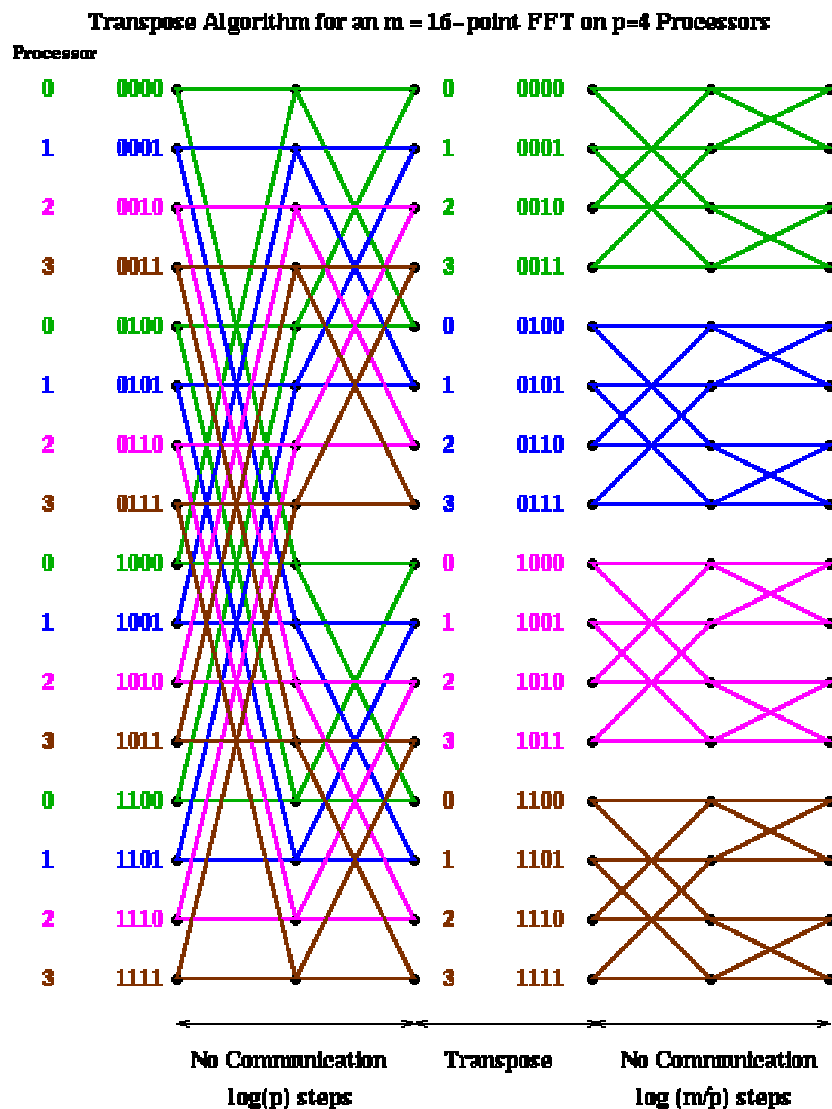Required
log (p) steps

Demmel Sp 1999

Parallel Complexity

° m = vector size, p = number of processors

° f = time per flop = 1

° α = startup for message (in f units)

° β = time per word in a message (in f units)

° Time(blockFFT) = Time(cyclicFFT) =

   2*m*log(m)/p

   + log(p) * α
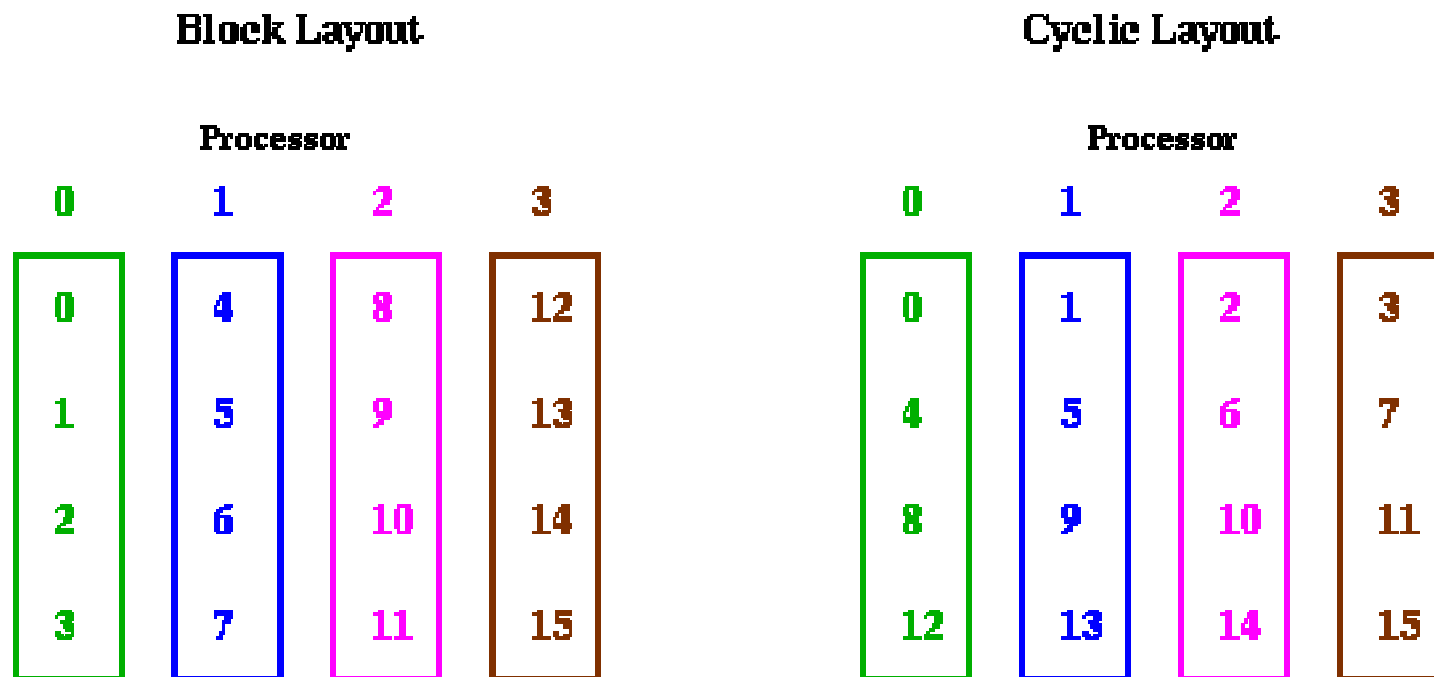
   + m*log(p)/p * β

FFT With "Transpose"

- ° **If we start with a cyclic layout for first log(p) steps, there is no communication**

- ° **Then transpose the vector for last log(m/p) steps**

- ° **All communication is in the transpose**

Transpose Algorithm for an m = 16-point FFT on p=4 Processors

Demmel Sp 1999

Why is the Communication Step Called a Transpose?

° **Analogous to transposing an array**

° **View as a 2D array of n/p by p**

° **Note: same idea is useful for uniprocessor caches**

Block Layout

Processor

0	1	2	3
0	4	8	12
1	5	9	13
2	6	10	14
3	7	11	15

Cyclic Layout

Processor

0	1	2	3
0	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15

Complexity of the FFT with Transpose

° **If communication is not overlapped**

° **Time(transposeFFT) =**

   2*m*log(m)/p   **same as before**

   + (p-1) * α   **was log(p) * α**

   + m*(p-1)/p² * β   **was m* log(p)/p $*$ β**

° **Transpose version sends less data, but more messages**

° **If communication is overlapped, so we do not pay for p-1 messages, the second term becomes simply α, rather than (p-1)α.**

° **This is close to optimal. See LogP paper for details.**

Comment on the 1D Parallel FFT

° **The above algorithm leaves data in bit-reversed order**

- **Some applications can use it this way, like Poisson**
- **Others require another transpose-like operation**
- **Is the computation location-dependent?**

° **Other parallel algorithms also exist**

- **A very different 1D FFT is due to Edelman (see http://www-math.mit.edu/~edelman)**
- **Based on the Fast Multipole algorithm**
- **Less communication for non-bit-reversed algorithm**

Higher Dimension FFTs

° **FFTs on 2 or 3 dimensions are define as 1D FFTs on vectors in all dimensions.**

° **E.g., a 2D FFT does 1D FFTs on all rows and then all columns**

° **There are 3 obvious possibilities for the 2D FFT:**

- **(1) 2D blocked layout for matrix, using 1D algorithms for each row and column**

- **(2) Block row layout for matrix, using serial 1D FFTs on rows, followed by a transpose, then more serial 1D FFTs**

- **(3) Block row layout for matrix, using serial 1D FFTs on rows, followed by parallel 1D FFTs on columns**

- **Option 1 is best**

° **For a 3D FFT the options are similar**

- **2 phases done with serial FFTs, followed by a transpose for 3rd**

- **can overlap communication with 2nd phase in practice**